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ABSTRACT

Integrating reading and language arts at all levels is the focus of this journal issue. The articles and their authors are as follows: "Reading and Writing: Close Relatives or Distant Cousins" (Kathryn A. Koch); "The Reading-Writing Relationship: Myths and Realities" (Timothy Shanahan); "The Classroom Teacher as an Action Researcher: Beginning Writing/Reading Relationships" (Mary Jett-Simpson); "Oral Reading: To Be or Not to Be?" (Patrick Groff); "Incorporating Novels into the Developmental Reading Program" (Shirley A. Frick and Sara Daggett); "What Reading Teachers Should Tell Learning Disabled Students about College" (Charles T. Mangrum II and Stephen S. Strichart); and "College Level Reading and Study Skills: A Personal Perspective (Nancy Stewart Walker). (EL)

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Without its 21 local councils, WSRA could not exist. This cover is dedicated to all the teachers, reading specialists, administrators, professors, parents, and others who belong to the local reading councils in Wisconsin.

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on
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- Will discuss reasons why teachers resist teaching reading in the content areas

Ronald Carver, University of Missouri-Kansas City
- Will argue that teachers' most important function is to coordinate, motive and manage *what* students read

Lawrence Ericksen, Southern Illinois University at Carbondale
- Will examine factors related to effective staff development to improve reading instruction

Sam Sebesta, University of Washington
- At a special evening session, will demonstrate the use of literary selections to develop the affective side of reading

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Reading and writing: Close relatives or distant cousins

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Green Bay
Green Bay, Wisconsin

The possibility and implications of a reading-writing relationship have been popular topics at recent national and regional conventions of the International Reading Association and in recent reading and language arts journals. While ideas about a reading-writing relationship seem to be increasing, a search of the literature indicates that research into the relationship has not kept pace. It is possible, however, to draw conclusions from the research results we do have to answer four questions.

1. **How are reading and writing related?**

At one time, reading and writing were usually contrasted in the literature. Reading was defined as a receptive process, while writing was defined as an expressive process. The reader simply searched for the text's meaning, while the writer created meaning.

Currently, both reading and writing are viewed as active processes of meaning construction. It is the comprehension and composition processes that are related. An extensive review of the research literature caused Tierney and Pearson (1983) to comment as follows:

> We believe that at the heart of understanding reading and writing connections one must begin to view reading and writing as essentially similar processes of meaning construction. Both are acts of composing. From a reader's perspective, meaning is created as a reader uses his background of experience together with the author's cues to come to grips both with what the writer is getting him to do or think *and* what the reader decides and creates for himself. As a writer writes, she uses her own background of experience to generate ideas and, in order to produce a text which is considerate to her idealized reader, filters these drafts through her judgments about what her reader's background of experience

will be, what she wants to say and what she wants to get the reader to think or do. In a sense both reader and writer must *adapt* to their perceptions about their partner in negotiating what a text means (p. 1).

Several studies that used think-aloud protocols and other descriptons of the reading act support the idea that planning, drafting, aligning, revising, and monitoring are held in parallel by reading and writing (Bruce, 1981; Colins, Brown & Larkin, 1970; Tompkins, 1980).

Reading and writing are further related, in that a writer must read while writing (Tierney & Leys, 1984). They state,

> Reading is tied more directly to writing, as for example, when writers research a topic prior to writing, review their notes during writing, compare their style or format with that of another author, revise their work or rethink and evaluate their thoughts and arguments (p. 14-15).

Correlation studies suggest a modest general correlation between overall reading performance and writing achievement (Loban, 1976; Tierney & Leys, 1984). In reported studies, the strength of the correlation was dependent upon age and the measures employed to assess reading and writing performance. Loban reported that 60 percent of the fourth, sixth, and ninth grade students were either good writers and good readers or poor readers and poor writers. Tierney and Leys had similar results for 80 percent of their third grade students. The correlation between reading and writing attitudes paralleled the findings for achievement for these same third grade students.

A final answer to this first question comes from Holt and Vacca (1984):

> Both [reading and writing] are processes involving thinking...and seeking...and experimenting - action and interaction. Both require time...for practicing and for polishing (p. 180).

2. How does writing influence reading?

An excellent review of research in this area is provided by Stotosky (1983). She reviewed 20 articles dated from 1930 to 1981 and concluded:

> Studies that taught writing or used writing exercises primarily to improve writing and measured effects on reading did not tend to find significant effects on reading. On the other hand, almost all studies that used writing activities or exercises specifically to improve reading comprehension or retention of information in instructional material found

significant gains (p. 636).

There is evidence that writing experiences help children understand various characteristics of text and that the reason one reads is to comprehend a message (Boutwell, 1983; Chomsky, 1979; Durkin, 1966; Graves & Hansen, 1983; Harste, Woodward & Burke, 1984). Also, one reading method, the ***language experience approach,*** requires students to compose their reading materials. This approach has helped young readers, less-skilled readers, and second language readers (Feeley, 1979; Hall, 1981; Rigg, 1981; Stauffer, 1980).

Students who recognize a text's structure (e.g., time order, cause-effect) have better comprehension and retention than students who do not (Meyer & Freedle, 1984; Taylor & Samuels, 1983; Thorndyke, 1977). Recently, Taylor and Beach (1984) have reported that middle school students who practiced writing summaries following the text structure in social studies chapters were better at remembering material in new chapters than untrained students. Others (e.g., McGee & Richgels, 1985) have suggested writing activities as a means of teaching text structure to elementary students.

Writing has often been used as an adjunct to reading and studying. Research results have been mixed, but it appears that if summaries or note-taking are warranted by the text and if the students are capable of these activities, research supports these types of activities (Doctorow, Wittrock, & Marks, 1978; Kulhmvy, Dyer, & Silver, 1975; Taylor, 1982).

3. How does reading influence writing?

The general conclusion drawn from the research in this area is that reading *experiences* affect writing proficiency. For example, in a year-long study, students in grades 9-12 who wrote only one paper every three weeks but did additional reading made greater writing gains than students who wrote one paper per week but read less (Heys, 1962). Very similar results were also true of the fifth grade students in a nine-week study by DeVries (1970).

At the conclusion of a four-year longitudinal study, Mills (1974) reported that fourth grade students who had used children's literature as a springboard to writing scored significantly higher in their free writing than students who had not used children's literature this way. Test measures were a composition rating scale, tests of capitalization and punctuation, and total language from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Tierney and Leys (1984) report that third grade students used their reading experiences when considering topics, ideas, and style for their compositions.

Eckhoff (1983) analyzed writing samples of second grade students for linguistic structures, format, and style to determine if their basal reading text influenced their writing. Selections in one basal series were similar in style and complexity to literary prose (Basal A), while the other used a more simplified writing style (Basal B). The effects were very clear. As stated by Eckhoff:

> The findings of this study clearly showed that the writing of the children studied contained features of their reading texts. The writing of Basal B children in general was less than that of Basal A children. The Basal A children added to the linguistic complexity of their sentences by using complex verb forms, subordinate clauses, and infinitive and participial phrases. Basal B children tended to copy the format of their reading texts by writing one sentence per line. They also tended to use "and" at the beginning of sentences and "too" at the end - stylistic features that add little to the linguistic complexity of sentences (p. 615).

A few studies, the majority being dissertations with college students as subjects, were designed to determine if writing skills could be improved through reading instruction. In all cases, reading instruction by itself or integrated with writing instruction did not result in more proficient writing, as compared to students in control groups who only received writing instruction (Calhoun, 1971; Campbell, 1976; Maat, 1977; Mathews, Larsen, & Butler, 1945; Miller, 1974; Schneider, 1971).

4. What are the implications for reading teachers?

Recommendations that writing experiences should be integrated into reading instruction are common in recently published books (e.g., Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Irwin, 1985; Searfoss & Readence, 1985; Tway, 1985). As we would expect from the research reported, suggestions include replacing some workbook pages with extended writing activities, writing to expand topics, plots, and ideas from reading assignments, writing to enhance understanding of different genre, story grammars, and text structures, teaching some comprehension skills using reading and writing materials (e.g., simultaneously teaching students to find main ideas when reading and to include them when writing), and integrating reading and writing readiness activities.

The integration of *writing experiences* into *reading instruction* is a given conclusion from the literature on this topic.

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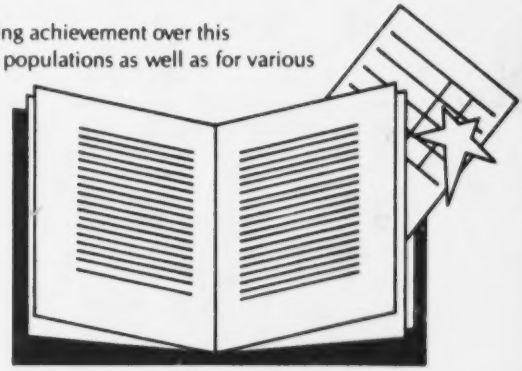

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The reading-writing relationship: Myths and realities

Timothy Shanahan
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It is asserted frequently that writing instruction should replace, or be integrated with, reading instruction. This recommendation has usually been proposed as a way of enhancing reading achievement, although empirical evidence in this area is severely limited. For example, Aulls (1982) claims, "Writing is an invaluable aid to reading because anything written must also be read ... writing and rewriting develop knowledge about text organization (cohesion and coherence) which facilitates the integration of meaning during reading" (p. 224). Similarly, Dionisio (1983) states that, "...they (remedial students) wrote every day, and in the process were driven to read...They were using writing as a unified tool for learning; they became willing and able readers and writers" (p. 750).

Such authoritative opinions concerning the use of writing activity to enhance reading achievement have been traced as far back as the 1850's in American education (Smith, 1965). The idea has become so popular that no recent volume of *The Reading Teacher, Journal of Reading, Language Arts,* or *Reading World* has been without articles exhorting teachers to use writing to teach reading. Also, more than 100 presentations of this type were included in the program of the International Reading Association's annual meeting this year. It is apparent that the idea that writing can be used to teach reading effectively has been advocated so widely and for such a long time that it has achieved the status of high dogma in our profession.

The problem with dogma, of course, is that it derives principles from belief rather than from empirical evidence. Nevertheless, dogmatic statements of principle, because of their presuppository nature and their frequent repetition, begin to gain an aura of truth. This is not to say that there is no evidence regarding the positive influence of writing upon reading. Such evidence is minimal, however, and it is too constrained to provide adequate support for many of the instructional recommendations which have been made concerning the integration of reading and writing instruction.

The purpose of this article is to critically examine, on the basis of empirical evidence, two currently popular myths or statements of dogma concerning the reading-writing relationship. First, the myth that writing instruction will necessarily lead to reading achievement will be considered. Then, the myth that writing development precedes reading development will be examined. These myths will be discussed with regard to the particular instructional problems that might arise from their application.

Myth I

It is frequently stated that the teaching of writing will lead automatically to higher achievement in reading. This statement seems to have its basis in the assumption that reading and writing are closely related processes, believed to be so closely related, in fact, that learning in writing is believed to be identical, or at least directly applicable, to learning in reading:

> Writing also contributes to reading because writing is the making of reading. When a child writes she has to know the sound-symbol relations inherent in reading. Auditory, visual, and kinesthetic systems are all at work when the child writes, and all contribute to greater skills (Graves, 1978, p. 8).
>
> When writing is neglected, reading suffers. Neglect of a child's expression in writing limits the understanding the child gains from reading (Graves, 1978, p. 11).

What Graves is claiming, in other words, is that at least some important reading skills are learned through writing. Writing activity is viewed as a necessary precondition for developing reading ability. He assumes that these reading skills or abilities are actually a subset of those skills and abilities learned from writing.

This view, that the replacement of reading instruction can benefit writing development, is even more explicit in a later publication:

> Children do extensive reading when they reread and revise their own texts...Large amounts of time have been taken from formal reading instruction and given over to time for writing...(Graves & Murray, 1980, p. 39).

Other authors have reiterated and extended these points as well. For example, Hoskisson (1979), in the style of a false debate, writes:

> "You want me to believe that children will learn to read by learning to write. You want us to put the emphasis on writing in school and not on reading?"
>
> "That is true..." (p. 894)

Similarly, Stotsky (1982) recommends the use of writing to teach reading because:

> Clearly, reading is inherent in most writing. All writing is a putting down on paper of one's own thoughts or the thoughts of others; by its very nature, writing should entail reading (p. 330).

That is, reading represents a proper subset of writing. The teaching of writing necessarily will result in higher reading achievement.

These authorities are claiming that reading and writing are so redundant that the teaching of writing must lead to the development of reading skills. The application of this principle to the design of curriculum and instruction could lead to a *decline* in literacy learning, however. This ironic eventuality should be considered before any significant changes in educational programs are undertaken on the basis of such statements. Any increase in the amount of writing instruction that is brought about by decreasing the amount of reading instruction could reduce reading ability. If some criterion level of reading achievement is needed before writing development can proceed efficiently, this change could lead not only to an eventual decline in reading achievement but also to a decrease in writing achievement as well.

If reading and writing are highly redundant processes, as has been claimed, then it would be expected that measures of writing would explain most, if not all, of the variance in measures of reading. This, however, is not the case. A recent study (Shanahan, 1985) examined the amount of overlap which existed between multiple sets of reading and writing variables. More than 500 children in grades two and five completed tests of reading vocabulary, sentence comprehension, passage comprehension, and phonics analysis. These subjects also completed spelling tests, which were analyzed for standard spelling accuracy, phonomic accuracy, and visual accuracy; and they wrote two stories each which were analyzed for vocabulary diversity, sophistication of syntax, and story organization. These measures were selected to provide maximally valid and reliable estimates of all those variables identified in previous studies as being correlated across the reading-writing sets.

In none of the analyses completed in that study were the sets of reading or writing variables found to explain more than 45 percent of the cross-set variance. Thus, reading and writing are not identical processes although there does exist a significant and instructionally meaningful amount of overlap between the two sets. This overlap might be successfully exploited instructionally so that writing could actually raise reading achievement, but there is also a great deal of independence between the sets. This indicates that the idea of simple replacement is badly flawed, as it would probably lead to an incomplete teaching of one process or the other.

It might be argued that the use of more measures of reading and

writing would lead to the explication of greater amounts of cross-set variance. However, all major relationships previously discussed in the literature were assessed in this study. Also, the results were in basic agreement with other multivariate analyses of the reading-writing relationship (Gustafson, 1970; Simpson, 1973), as well as with other studies which have found a greater amount of reading-writing independence than is usually mentioned (Frith, 1978; Martin, 1977). It also should be noted that measures of reading or writing usually require the use of both input and output processes, so the amount of correlation between the sets might actually have been over-estimated rather than under-estimated.

The results of this study also seem to be in better accord with available experimental results than is the myth. Comparisons of the combination of reading and writing instruction with reading instruction alone, have had very mixed results. Some studies have reported higher reading achievement due to writing instruction and activity (Combs, 1975; Gordon and Braun, 1982; Straw and Schreiner, 1982; Weaver, 1979). It has also been reported, however, that the addition of writing activity sometimes has had no discernable impact upon reading achievement (Baxter, 1971; Levin, Watson & Feldman, 1964; Mason, McDaniel & Callaway, 1974; Mills, 1959; Oehlkers, 1971) or that writing instruction improved reading achievement, although not as well as did reading instruction alone (Crews, 1969; Williams, 1969; 1975; 1977). These studies suggest that the simple replacement of reading instruction with writing instruction will not necessarily derive the positive outcomes claimed, and it might actually lead to declines under certain conditions.

Myth II

A second popular statement about the reading-writing relationship concerns order of acquisition. Current mythology holds that writing development precedes reading development. This does not mean that writing necessarily leads to eventual reading development, only that development can and should occur in writing prior to development in reading. Of course, if writing ability develops before reading ability there could be no requisite amount of reading skill that must be accomplished before writing instruction will be beneficial.

In a review of Roger Schank's recent book on reading instruction, this statement appears:

> Readers will be tempted to dismiss much of what Schank says as naive, if not downright silly. I say so because the book is full of statements like these: "One must obviously teach reading prior to teaching writing, since it is hard to write if you can't read" (Estes, 1983, p. 484).

In another article, this one praising Freinet's "natural method," Tutolo (1983) states:

> The normal process is unlike the teaching of the traditional school where reading instruction precedes writing instruction. In the natural method, the child progresses from writing to reading (p. 753).

Carol Chomsky is even stronger in her statement that:

> Children are ready to write before they are ready to read, and their introduction to the printed word should be through writing rather than reading (1976; p. 1).

Such statements suggest that initial reading instruction should be delayed until some unspecified amount of writing activity takes place. Despite the certainty with which this recommendation has been proposed, it actually appears to have a rather tenuous basis on evidence garnered from early reader studies and invented spelling studies.

Studies of children who learn to read before starting school have often suggested that children show an interest in and facility with writing prior to reading. Durkin (1966), for example, found that early readers showed an early interest in writing:

> For many, attempts to write began at the age of four; for more than half they came prior to any reading ability (Durkin, 1976, p. 137).

This finding was dramatically replicated in an analysis of early writers (Hall, Moretz & Staton, 1976). This study reported that 17 of the 18 subjects examined showed an interest in writing prior to showing any such interest in reading.

This type of evidence suggests that writing is a "natural" precursor to eventual learning in the area of reading. This evidence is not as solid as it might first appear, however. Data for such studies were collected from parent interviews as much as a year or two after the onset of the literacy behaviors of interest. It is certainly possible that parents are unable to actually recall the subtle sequence of events after this much delay. Moreover, it should be noted that such studies did not define reading and writing in equivalent terms. Reading is usually defined as an ability to read some specified number of words in a list provided by the experimenter. Looking at books, making up book-like language while examining pages of text, or even the recognition of words not on the given list did not qualify a youngster as a reader. However, any attempts to use letters, words, or other representations in order to communicate qualified as writing activity in such studies. These writing behaviors did not even need to occur with any degree of frequency. The use of such non-equivalent definitions leads to the possibility that "writing" is learned before "reading."

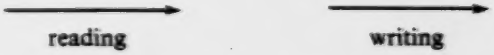
The evidence drawn from the area of invented spelling poses similar

problems. Invented spelling studies have found that young children can represent phonemes in a primitive though consistent manner, which reveals a sophistication in the use of phonemic knowledge (Read, 1975; Chomsky, 1974; Henderson & Beers, 1981). It has been reported that children are able to place letters into some kind of sequential order that systematically represents phonemes well enough that adults can sometimes read these compositions. Certainly, it is possible that young children can do this without being able to read any standard words.

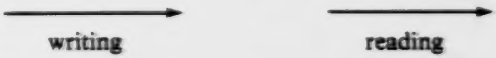
The definition problem again exists. The ability to invent spellings is a skill highly dependent upon the child's conception of a word knowledge of letter names and of phoneme-grapheme relationships. These, however, are the skills of early reading. They have the appearance of being more sophisticated in writing because the researchers have been willing to accept relatively lower standards of performance. When cleverly designed research tasks have been used to assess children's early understanding of text (such as the functional knowledge of print (Ferreiro & Toberosky, 1982)), understanding of book and print features (Clay, 1972), conception of the printed word (Morris, 1981; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982), it has been apparent that learning in reading precedes writing development.

Logically, and contrary to current myth, it is necessary that learning to read precedes learning to write. Language is an arbitrary, invented system that gains its communicative power through the use of agreed upon symbols. Children must first learn symbols and the rules which govern their use before they can produce them. The only way that writing could possibly precede reading, when the two skills are defined equivalently, would be for children to be born with a knowledge of print.

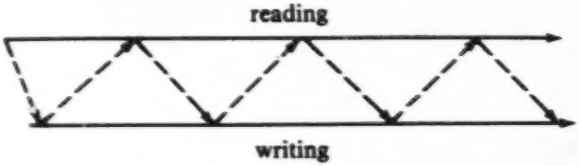
This does not mean that a child has to know everything about reading before learning to write can occur. It also does not mean that learning, or rather a consolidation of learning, cannot occur through writing. Literacy must first develop in reading, but as each skill is learned, it is possible to apply this knowledge to writing. The traditional focus on reading before writing has generally stressed reading early in the curriculum and writing late in the curriculum:



The myth about the order of acquisition has simply reversed this position with an even more untenable one:



A more conceptually appropriate representation would have to show reading and writing as separate lines in which writing development lags, briefly, behind reading development and in which learnings which have already occurred in reading or writing can feed forward to assist in development:



Such a representation is consonant with my research data (Shanahan, 1985) which shows the reading-writing relationship to change from a word recognition-word production relationship during the early stages of literacy learning to a prose comprehension-prose production relationship during later stages of development.

Conclusions

This article has critically examined two popular myths concerning the reading-writing relationship. These myths have arisen due to inadequate theory development regarding the nature of this relationship. Careless use of imprecise language has also contributed to the confusion. No matter what their source, however, these myths serve to obscure the truth and to blur distinctions that would be more useful if left clear, but each of these myths encompasses a grain of truth. Writings *can* be used to stimulate reading growth, although typically it does this only when the writing activity is carefully designed to have such an effect. It is important to remember that writing should be taught whether or not it stimulates growth in reading. The teaching of writing, however, should not lead to a decrease in the amount of reading instruction that is offered. If reading achievement is lessened, either through a reduction in amount of instruction or because of a delay in instruction, the outcome might actually be lower writing achievement.

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Get Involved!

'Reading Is For Everyone'

The classroom teacher as an action researcher: Beginning writing/reading relationships

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"What, writing in the kindergarten! They can't even write yet!" This is a common response when I have first suggested that teachers add a solid writing component to their language arts program in kindergarten and primary grades. Usually teachers are thinking about children's ability to reproduce letters, penmanship, and spelling when the word "writing" is mentioned in relationship to beginning school experiences. The assumption is that the teacher needs to teach them how to reproduce letters and words correctly before children can be allowed to compose their own stories in writing. This article challenges that assumption and offers an alternative point of view based on longitudinal and case studies of writing. By allowing children to "write" their own stories, letters, lists, etc. beginning with the preschool years, children discover how the written language works. Not only do they discover many of the conventions of writing but also they learn a great deal about reading as well. The purpose of this article is to describe the developmental reading process and to challenge you to systematically include writing opportunities beginning with the preschool level.

What does a writing/reading classroom look like?

The most obvious difference between a writing/reading classroom and a conventional primary grade classroom is that children are busy writing during the time when they would typically be filling in worksheets and workbooks. Workbooks completely disappear in some classrooms and are greatly minimized in others. The children are producing language rather than simply selecting a few answers on a page to quickly submit to the teacher.

Children are also engaged in a creative and critical thinking process since writing/reading classrooms are built on a process model of writing. This model recognizes that writing is not an activity in which the writer sits down with paper and pencil in hand and produces cor-

rect copy with well-organized content with the first writing. Rather, writing is what real writers do. It begins with a swirl of memories and thoughts from which the writer selects a topic. Then the writer prepares for composing in various ways such as daydreaming, jotting some notes, doodling, sketching, talking to someone, writing lists of words, or even READING. The composing process involves selecting ideas, writing, reading what was written, selecting ideas, writing, reading ... Within this think, write, read cycle, the writer is constantly making decisions about information, words, and ideas to include, about the form of the piece, and about what to eliminate and add. The rough drafts include crossed out words and sections, inserts, and invented spellings. Attention, during composing, is given to the content of the piece. After the first draft is complete the writer revises. As part of revision, the writer may read the piece to others to see what they hear him/her saying and to see what questions they have about it. When the writer is satisfied with the content, editing issues become a concern. During the editing phase, the writer pays attention to spelling, punctuation, and grammar - the mechanics of writing. When the piece has been edited, it is ready for publication. The writer might hand-reproduce the piece in book format with illustrations or copy it into a "Bare Book" (Treetop Publishing, 220 Virginia St., Racine, WI 53405). If the writer has been doing the composing with a word processing program on the computer, then the final printout becomes the publication. No step of the process is "instant result" oriented. Rather the focus is on working through the process until the piece satisfies the author (Graves, 1983, Chapters 21-22).

Another characteristic of the writing/reading classroom is productive noise. Although the first ten to fifteen minutes of the writing period may be quiet, after that time the classrooms are not typically silent places. There is a gentle buzz as children talk quietly together trying to work out "glitches" in their pieces. Some children may be quietly reading a part they have just written to a friend sitting close by or seeking out the teacher as a receptive listener.

These writing/reading classrooms are places where children are actively involved in their work pursuing something they want to write and know about. The topic is theirs, self-selected to match some need within each individual. Hence, the motivation for work is high. Typcially, teachers in these clasrooms don't hear the moaning groan, "Ah, do we have to write today!" Rather, the result is "Don't we get to write today?"

How do writing and reading connect?

Calkins (1983) describes the connection between reading and writing saying that writing gives an insider's view of reading since writers are makers of reading. Writers are engaged in the constructive

process described above where they mold their works into finished pieces for others to read. The reader then engages in a process of reconstructing the meaning of the writer's piece. Readers who are also writers have greater insight into how to do that reconstruction of meaning.

For some time, many have viewed writing and reading as separate processes. Calkins (1983) said that she also made that assumption. However, in her case study writing research with young children, she tells about her observations of the strong connections between reading and writing.

> I was wrong, first, because there was no way I could watch writing without watching reading. While composing, children read continually. They read to savor the sounds of their language, they read to see what they had written, they read to regain momentum, they read to reorient themselves, they read to avoid writing. They read to find gaps in their work, they read to evaluate whether the piece was working, they read to edit. And they read to share the work of their hands.
>
> Then too, I was wrong because even when children weren't reading, they were using and developing skills which are traditionally assigned to the domain of reading. As Susie and her classmates wrote, rewrote and conferenced, they selected and reselected their main ideas, organized their supporting details, adjusted and defended their sequences. They reached toward inference, they discovered cause and effect, they developed and challenged conclusions. In a sense, everything that happened during writing time related to skills which are traditionally viewed as reading skills (p. 153).

The children reread during a sizeable portion of the writing period. One six-year-old child was observed rereading his piece twenty-seven times before he had completed writing one sentence. Some children were observed to spend as much as 30 percent of the writing time reading (Calkins, 1983, p. 153).

Donald Graves (1983) has also observed that good collections of children's books in the classroom and library are a necessary part of a writing/reading program. Why? Because, the children constantly need the books for information to assist them in writing their pieces. Children's books also serve as models for ideas for structuring their own writing (Stewig, 1980).

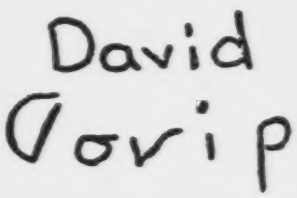
What conventions of writing do writers discover through writing?

The first scribble writings of children look meaningless to the adults

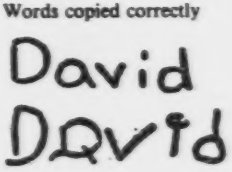
in their environment. When asked to read what they have written, these budding writers can typically read the letter, story, or list to the adults with confidence. These scribbles reflect early attempts to represent meaning in print. Soon the random scribbles take on the directionality of conventional writing beginning on the left side of the page and moving across the page to the right then back to the left and across the page again. Already children are discovering and practicing one of the basic conventions of English print. As children's writing is observed over time, we can see their developing awareness of letters, letter patterns, sound/symbol correspondences, and concepts of words, sentences, and stories reflected in the writing. Figure One summarizes the writing behaviors many children follow when they are given opportunities to write in a print-rich environment.

FIGURE 1. Developmental Writing Patterns (Mass, 1982)

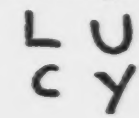
Words copied incorrectly



Words copied correctly



Words written incorrectly without copying



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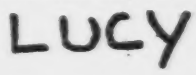
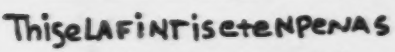


Invented spellings of groups of words

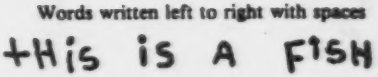
(This is a elephant.)

Words written left to right without spaces

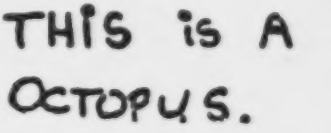


(This elephant is eating peanuts.)

Words written left to right with spaces



Words written left to right with spaces, return down left



What are the developmental characteristics of invented spelling?

When we listen to our children learn to talk, we become very excited when they make sounds that are approximations for words such as "da-da" or "ma-ma." Yet in primary classrooms, if children attempt to spell a word according to their developmental knowledge, they typically receive negative reinforcement in the form of a bloody red circle around the misspelled word. Seldom do the adult figures in their lives praise the children for the part of the word spelled correctly or praise them for identifying a sound/symbol correspondence correctly. For example, let's say a kindergarten child writes "hs" under the picture of a four legged animal. The teacher could, instead of calling attention to the inaccurate spelling, respond by saying — "Look at that. You figured out the sounds at the beginning and end of the word "horse. That's good thinking." Rather, children receive the message that it must always "be right" from the beginning. If you can't spell it

correctly, don't write the word is a basic principle many children apply daily in their writing.

Yet when Bissex (1980), Taylor (1983), Temple, Nathan, & Burris (1982), and Graves (1983) observed the spellings of young writers they saw developmental patterns. To solve the problem of spelling words, children invented spellings by applying their current sound/symbol or phonics knowledge. Although different researchers assign different labels to the stages and some break them into more steps, they agree, for the most part, on the characteristics of the overall pattern. See Figure 2 for a description of the stages of invented spelling.

FIGURE 2. Five General Stages of Invented Spelling
(Graves, 1983, 184-5)

	Target Word - Grass
Stage 1 — Use of initial consonant	G
Stage 2 — Initial and final consonant	GS
Stage 3 — Initial, final, and interior consonant	GRS
Stage 4 — Initial, final, and interior consonants, and vowel place holder. Vowel is incorrect but in correct position.	GRES
Stage 5 — Child has the full spelling of the word, with final components from visual memory systems and better vowel discrimination.	GRASS

Susan Sowers (Graves, 1983, p. 184-186) traced the invented spelling patterns of two first graders. These children were part of a writing/reading classroom where there was a print-rich environment, but the children had received no spelling instruction for the examples provided below.

TONI - and

10/17 - D
D
10/23 - ND
10/25 - AD
11/10 - ND
LA
LA
ANE
11/16 - AND
11/18 - ND
11/28 - AND
12/1 - AND
12/8 - AND

SARAH - flowers

11/20 - FLLAOWZ
FLLAWRZ
FLLAWR
1/11 - FLAWRS
6/1 - FLOWERS

SARAH - everything

11/3 - AVVETAG
11/6 - AVVETAG
1/31 - EVERYTHING

28

How do you begin a writing/reading program?

1. **By reading about writing.** The book that will give you complete confidence in beginning a writing program is *Writing: Teachers and Children at Work* by Donald Graves (1983, Heinemann Educational Books, 70 Court St., Portsmouth, New Hampshire 03801). The book is based on Graves' continuous research on the composing processes of young children. In the book you will find out how to survive the first day, to help children choose topics, to organize the classroom, to integrate writing with children's literature, and to integrate writing with the school day, to work with the writing process including revising, the role of mechanics such as spelling, grammar and handwriting, to write with the children and to communicate with other teachers, administrators and parents. Although first grade children were the focus of Graves' work, teachers at all grade levels will find something in the book.

A companion book for helping you develop your reading-writing program is *Read to Write,* by John Stewig (1980, Holt, Rinehart & Winston). The book is a rich collection of concrete ways to integrate children's literature with writing where the literature provides a model for writing.

Other books of interest include:

Bissex, G. (1980). *GNYS AT WRK. A Child Learns to Write and Read.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1980.

Calkins, L. (1983). *Lessons from a Child.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Harste, J., Woodward, V., and Burke, C. (1984). *Language Stories and Literacy Lessons,* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

Taylor, D. (1983). *Family Literacy.* Portmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Temple, C., Nathan, R., and Burris, N. (1982). *The Beginnings of Writing.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

In addition, begin reading the numerous articles appearing in *The Reading Teacher, Language Arts,* and *Young Children* about the writing process. Here is a starter list.

Atkins, C. (1984). Writing, doing something constructive. *Young Children,* (November), 3-7.

Dyson, A. (1984). N spell my grandmama: Fostering early thinking about print. *The Reading Teacher, 37,* (3). 262-271.

Elliott, S., Nosowad, J., & Samuels, P. (1981). Me at school, me at home: using journals with preschoolers. *Language Arts, 58,* (6), 688-691.

Friedman, S. (1985). "If you don't know how to write, you try:" Techniques that work in first grade. *The Reading Teacher, 38,* (6), 512-521.

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Grubstein, M. (1984). Writing process in the first grade. *Early Years, 14,* (6), (Feb.), 46-47, 43.

Hipple, M. (1985). Journal writing in kindergarten. *Language Arts, 62,* (3), 255-261.

Lancaster, W., Nelson, L., and Morris, D. (1982). Invented spellings in Room 112: A writing program for low-reading second graders. *The Reading Teacher, 35,* (8), 906-911.

Kami, C. & Randazzo, M. (1985). Social interaction and invented spelling. *Language Arts, 62,* (2), 124-133.

Smith, N. (1985). The word processing approach to language-experience. *The Reading Teacher, 38,* (6), 556-559.

Starvish, M. (1984). A delicate art: helping very young writers. *Learning: The Magazine for Creative Teaching, 21,* (9), (April-May), 40-41.

Wiseman, D. (1984). Helping children take early steps toward reading and writing. *The Reading Teacher, 37,* (4), 340-344.

2. By talking with other teacher who have already begun.

Following is a list of people who are integrating writing and reading. They are all willing to talk with you about the adventure.

Tom Roepke, Lowell Elementary, Waukesha, Wisconsin, (414) 548-0319.

Joanne Neuburg and Cindy Hurst, Lake Bluff School, Shorewood, Wisconsin 53211, (414) 963-6001.

Joan Wiegand and Patricia Steinbach, Hamilton/Sussex School District, (414) 781-8283.

Tammy Peters, Oriole Lane School, Mequon, (414) 243-5720.

Ronnie Brown, Meadow View School, Oconomowoc, (414) 474-4531.

Cheryl Schultz, Ashippun School, Oconomowoc (414) 474-4461.

3. By just starting.

You don't have to have all of your questions answered to start. Just plan a basic framework for operating and begin. As you move through the process of restructuring your classroom, you will learn from yourself and your children. You will have questions to be answered. Read some more and talk with people who are already working with a writing/reading program. Your children will also be one of your best sources of instruction. They have much to teach us if we only will open ourselves to their lessons. Graves stated in an interview for the Wisconsin Television series, "Teaching Reading Comprehension," that the children are ready anytime. It is teachers who feel that they need to get ready.

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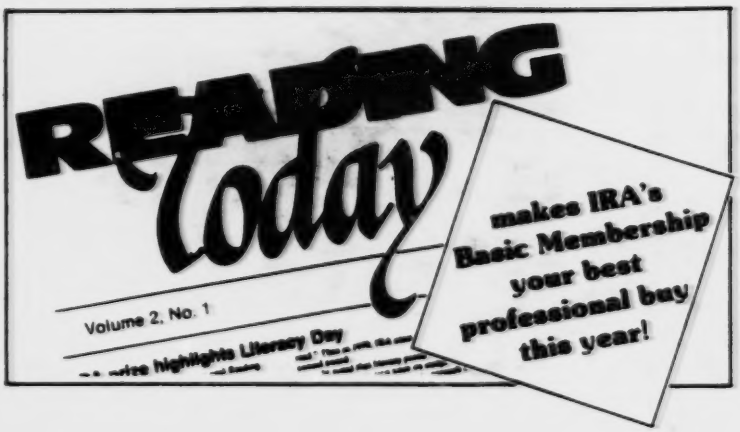
Stewig, J. (1980). *Read to Write,* NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Taylor, D. (1983). *Family Literacy.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Temple, C., Nathan, R., and Burris, N. (1982) *The Beginnings of Writing.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Mary Jett-Simpson is an associate professor at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. She is interested in supporting teachers in making instructional changes in reading congruent with recent research.



CHILDREN, PARENTS, AND READING

from the International Reading Association
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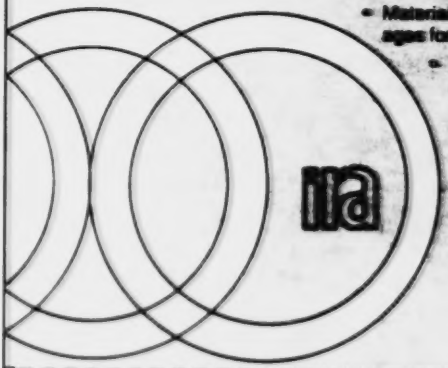

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Oral reading: To be or not to be?

Patrick Groff
San Diego State University
San Diego, California

Until the turn of the century, oral reading was taught extensively in the nation's schools. By 1915, however, strong objections to the continued heavy teaching of oral reading had been voiced by many reading experts. One historian of oral reading in the schools (Hyatt, 1943) has observed that by 1925 the anti-oral reading movement had swept the country. In the 1930's articles in educational journals that recommended the teaching of oral reading were noticeably absent. By the 1940's totally non-oral reading methods had been used in our nation's largest school systems (Buswell, 1945).

This rejection of, or indifference to, oral reading by reading experts continued into the 1960's and beyond. No references to oral reading are found in the 1961 and 1968 yearbooks on reading instruction of the prestigious and influential National Society for the Study of Education. There is no mention of oral reading as an instructional technique in the latest volumes of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, those for 1969 and 1982.

It is not surprising, therefore, to discover that most of the textbooks for teachers on reading methodology published in the past twenty years have dealt with oral reading in one of two ways. These texts usually either warn against its extensive use or display their displeasure with oral reading by making no comment whatsoever about it. Hoffman (1981) is correct in his judgment that one seldom, if ever, finds a call for an increase in oral reading in these textbooks for teachers.

The reading experts who over the years have denounced oral reading have given at least fourteen different reasons why its practice should be deemphasized, if not abandoned (Groff, in press). Oral reading in schools is unimportant, they argue, because very little of it is done in out-of-school life experiences. They accuse oral reading of promoting subvocalization (lip, tongue, and vocal cord movement in silent reading), which they feel is undesirable. Oral reading creates "word-callers," they fear, and thus interferes with the development of reading comprehension. Oral reading will also impede the develop-

ment of good reading speed, it is charged. Since oral reading is thought to be more difficult to teach than silent reading, the time necessary to teach it is exorbitant in relation to its benefits. Teachers are warned that oral reading is the cause of much personal embarrassment to pupils, trauma which deadens their interest in silent reading. It is also alleged that oral reading, if used, will soon take up so much school time that little will be left for silent reading.

Yet another objection to oral reading is that pupils' listening skills deteriorate when oral reading occurs because students are not interested in listening. Oral reading is further objected to because it supposedly is a reading behavior that cannot be measured accurately or objectively. Oral reading supposedly causes long and frequent eye fixations which unfortunately transfer into silent reading. In the same way oral reading is accused of narrowing pupils' wide eye-voice spans (the distance between where the eye fixates in a sentence and the word in this line that is read aloud) that are necessary for good silent reading. The defense of oral reading is based on a faulty theory, i.e., that good silent reading is the ability to accurately recognize *individual* words, it is claimed. Instruction in oral reading is not needed, in any event, because skill in it will come naturally as a consequence of learning to read silently. Finally, since oral reading is believed to take no teacher preparation, it causes teachers who emphasize it to become lackadaisical and unenterprising.

There is no doubt, then, that teachers and reading experts have disagreed sharply over the place of oral reading. To this effect teachers have rejected the reasons given by reading experts as to why oral reading should be given less attention, if not forsaken altogether. Which of these two parties has made the sounder decision on this issue?

If one examines the empirical evidence available on the fourteen reasons the opponents of oral reading have given for their objections to it, one must judge teachers' beliefs about oral reading to have greater validity. An analysis of this evidence (Groff, in press) does not tend to support the anti-oral reading position. Each of the fourteen objections to oral reading, given above, can be questioned. The fact that a skill is not used frequently in one's everyday life is not a legitimate reason for not learning it in school. The use of oral reading can be defended because it facilitates other learning. Subvocalization is not an undesirable behavior; it does not impede reading speed. The extent to which oral reading is taught cannot be shown to interfere with reading speed or comprehension nor with children's listening skills. Oral reading skill actually is easier to acquire than is silent reading skill.

Furthermore, classes in which oral reading is stressed do not cause undue emotional problems in children. There appears to be adequate

time in the ordinary school day for both oral and silent reading. Oral reading can be satisfactorily measured; thus, the use of it as a diagnostic tool is well thought of. Eye movements and eye-voice spans are symptoms, not causes, of oral reading skills. The argument that accurate individual word recognition (and therefore oral reading) is unimportant can be readily refuted. Few skills will develop incidentally as well as they will develop through direct instruction. Oral reading is no exception. Finally, the charge that oral reading is the refuge of the lazy teacher is a frivolous accusation. Lazy teachers do a poor job of teaching both silent and oral reading.

In defense of oral reading, it can be shown that it has unique values as a reading assessment technique and as a diagnostic tool. It is true that the question of the effect oral reading has on children's acquisition of silent reading skills has been largely ignored (Allington, 1984; Danks & Hill, 1981). As a result, we have few guidelines from research to help us determine how much oral reading should be taught in schools.

Nonetheless, we can say with some surety that the usual objections made to the use of oral reading have little merit. On the other hand, it appears reasonable to contend that since children at school-entering age depend almost wholly on oral language for communication, their reading instruction should emphasize oral reading. Young children are observed to have a need to have their reading heard by others, to get a feedback as to its accuracy, if they are to acquire silent reading skills most effectively.

With older children, teachers find good listening habits arduous to develop. Following oral reading along silently as interesting, inspiring, relevant, and meaningful poetry, drama, and other literature is vocalized can help with this problem. The research suggests that teacher-guided oral reading practice has the potential to contribute to some degree to growth in silent reading ability (Hoffman, 1981). This oral reading practice can help develop reading fluency as it causes the readers to focus on units of language larger than the word. It helps comprehension as it requires effective interpretation of the author's intended meanings.

Instruction in oral reading also seems needed since there are times in school when an oral rendering of a text must be more faithful to the text than when it is read silently. When oral reading is used to provide precise answers to questions, to read poetry or plays, to give announcements or directions, to explain scientific or mathematical processes, or to cite sentence structures taken from pupils' compositions, it is necessary that the oral reader not wander from the text. In the language experience approach to reading, the oral readings by children are also expected to be literal reproductions of the sentences they previously had dictated.

It is also pertinent to note that during the course of the development of children's oral reading skills, the teacher holds children accountable for specific patterns of reading behavior. The requirement of specific responses is the key aspect of successful learning of many educational skills. The direct management that is necessary for pupils to develop oral reading ability thus provides a useful model of pupil management for teachers to follow in other aspects of skill development.

There is still a large research agenda for oral reading, as Allington (1984) correctly points out. Teachers, of necessity practical people, cannot wait, however, until the results of the studies of this list of questions about oral reading come in. Forced to make immediate decisions about oral reading, by and large teachers have decided that it does have merit. Until teachers are authentically informed otherwise on this matter, their actions here appear to be both reasonable and safe.

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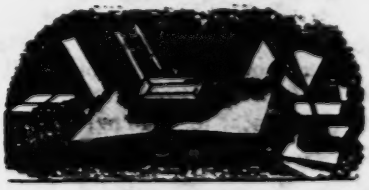
Patrick Groff is a professor of education at San Diego State University. He teaches courses in language arts, reading, and children's literature.



Incorporating novels into the developmental reading program

Shirley A. Frick
Sara Daggett
Weyauwega-Fremont School District
Weyauwega, Wisconsin

It is not our purpose to forge a chain-of-blame as to why some students who come to us in the middle school and high school have not been successful readers. Blaming teachers in previous grades for their failure to teach certain reading skills is a waste of time. Teachers cannot completely compensate for *inequalities* - birth, family income, parental education, etc. - with which a child *begins* school. It is, however, our responsibility as teachers to *equalize* the opportunity so that each student can reach a reading level approaching the limits of his/her capacity.

Accepting each student at his/her reading level, therefore, we in the School District of Weyauwega-Fremont try methods and utilize instructional materials which have not been used in the K-12 developmental reading program.

After meeting with students and taking cues from them, we decided to incorporate novels into our reading program. We questioned (1) whether teaching reading as a series of sub-skills or fragmentation was best *for them* (2) whether teaching students *how* to read was out of balance with helping students develop the desire to *want* to read and (3) whether the conventional acceptance of using textbooks takes enthusiasm away from students who might be voracious, compulsive readers if reading instruction had been presented using other methods and instructional materials.

A key to the successful teaching of novels depends on selecting novels whose content and related activities match the needs, interests, and abilities of the students. By carefully reading the novels by paragraphs in class, if necessary, and discussing characters, setting, situations, points of view, conflict, morals, and plot and theme, the students become totally immersed in the reading process. Gradually the transfer of reading skills from the teacher to students occurs. The communication competencies - listening, speaking, reading, and

writing - are taught as an integrated whole. Many of the students select the novels we have read for their private book collections during RIF distribution.

The novel lends itself readily to meeting certain requirements of our reading curriculum competencies such as:

1. identifying the meaning of a word when the meaning is explicitly stated in a passage.
2. identifying details explicitly stated in a passage.
3. inferring the meaning of a word when contextual clues are given.
4. inferring the main idea of a passage.
5. drawing appropriate conclusions from information presented in a passage.
6. predicting from the information presented in a passage.
7. distinguishing reality and fact from fantasy and opinion.

Some of the novels the students have learned to love and reread are:

1. *Island of the Blue Dolphins* - Scott O'Dell
2. *Sing Down the Moon* - Scott O'Dell
3. *Johnny Tremain* - Esther Forbes
4. *Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* - Mildred Taylor
5. *Tom Sawyer* - Mark Twain
6. *Sounder* - William Armstrong
7. *Call of the Wild* - Jack London

In summary, working with middle and high school students who have had little success in reading challenges the teacher to try new techniques and instructional materials. Selecting novels as tools to teach reading provides a means to turn problem readers around and meet curriculum competencies. Students can identify with the characters in the selected novels since many are in the same age bracket and have very similar problems, dreams, and interests.

Historical novels, such as *Johnny Tremain*, provide authentic background and information on various socioeconomic, religious, and ethnic groups which transfer across the curriculum to other disciplines. The novel tends to mitigate the difficulties of the content area textbooks.

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Shirley A. Frick is a reading teacher at the Weyauwega-Fremont Middle and High Schools.

Sara Daggett is a seventh grade teacher at Weyauwega-Fremont Middle School.

Call For Literature
Written By Students

For the summer, 1986 WSRA Journal, submissions of short stories, poetry or essays, written by K-12 students are invited. Two copies of student work, either typed or printed on white paper, should be submitted to the editor. Selections of student writing to be used in the summer issue will be made by the editorial staff of the journal. Those submitting work should include the student's name, grade, school, and city. We would also request that the teacher's name be included. We regret that we will be unable to return submissions to students.

Deadline for submissions will be April 18, 1986.

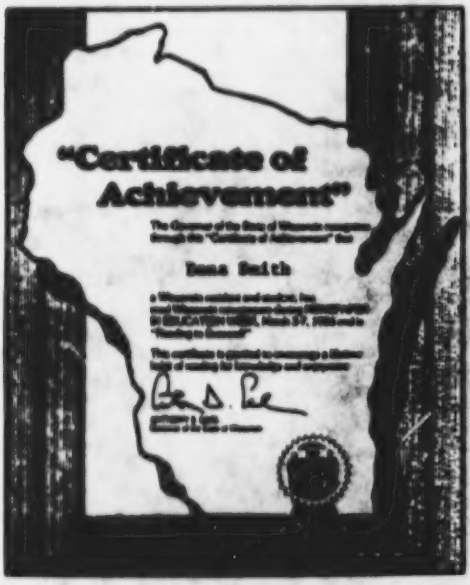
Send all submissions to:

Michael P. French
144 E. Burnett Street
Beaver Dam, Wisconsin 53916

BOYS AND GIRLS...

YOU NEED TO SUCCEED!

Win your own "Certificate of Achievement". To be a winner in today's world, you have to be able to read and understand the printed page. In anticipation of NEWSPAPER IN EDUCATION WEEK, March 3-7, 1986, make your pledge to read and succeed. Fill out the attached form and get your 8½" x 11" Read to Succeed "Certificate of Achievement"-FREE! Don't delay! Make your pledge and mail it today. Your certificate is signed by the State of Wisconsin Governor, Anthony S. Earl. It is suitable for framing and certainly worth displaying.



I WANT TO SUCCEED!

I pledge to read and enjoy my local newspaper during Newspaper in Education Week, March 3-7, 1986.

By signing their names below in support and witness of my pledge, my parents (or guardian) and my school teacher will reinforce and assist me in becoming a more competent and skillful reader (no pledge will be honored unless it is completed and signed by all requested parties).

Upon receiving this pledge form, please forward to me, my own Read to Succeed "Certificate of Achievement".

Student's Signature	Parent's (or guardian's) signature
Student's Name (please print)	Teacher's Signature
Address	School
City and Zip	City and Zip
Grade in School	

MAIL TO: READ TO SUCCEED — NIE WEEK
"CERTIFICATE OF ACHIEVEMENT"
c/o Wisconsin Newspaper in Education Committee
P.O. Box 661, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201-0661

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

NIE SCHOLARSHIP CONTEST

Any WSRA member may submit a written description of a unit implementing the local newspaper and expedited during or prior to Newspaper In Education (NIE) Week, March 3-7, 1986. Only units created and executed between September 1, 1985 and March 7, 1986, are eligible. The unit can be designed for an individual classroom, school or on a district or community basis.

The prize is a full scholarship to the outstanding two-week graduate course, *"The Press in the School Curriculum,"* at UW-Madison, June 16-June 27, 1986. The course appeals to educators looking for professional growth, change, and diversification, who want to add challenge, creativity and variety to their teaching, they also want to motivate their students, and provide them with pragmatic skills and resources. Many already have some interest in the newspaper and want to use it more effectively. Others count on the training to help them meet graduate or professional certification requirements. The course instructs educators (K-12) in using the newspaper in all curricular areas.

Units will be judged on practicality, relevance, originality, and quality. Entries should be no longer than 500 words and should include unit objectives, a description of how the project was implemented, scope of the unit (Who was involved? Grade level? Students? Community?), teaching procedures (if appropriate), and cost.

Deadlines for entries: MARCH 21, 1986

Entries are to be sent to:

NIE SCHOLARSHIP CONTEST
Wisconsin Newspaper In Education Committee
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Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201

Wisconsin State Reading Association
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Check if also interested in receiving mailings from:
Secondary Reading ☐
Chapter I ☐

What reading teachers should tell learning disabled students about college

Charles T. Mangrum II
University of Miami
Miami, Florida

Stephen S. Strichart
Florida International University
Miami, Florida

Research shows that more than 85 percent of all learning disabled students have difficulty reading (Kirk and Elkins, 1975). Many of these learning disabled students receive services from reading teachers. As these students near completion of high school, many will seek information about continuing their education at college. Because of the close relationship learning disabled students establish with reading teachers, they will often seek the advice and guidance of these professionals when selecting a college.

Reading teachers, therefore, need to be aware of the kinds of assistance learning disabled students require to succeed in college. They also need to be aware of the increasing number of colleges that provide comprehensive programs specifically designed to help learning disabled students succeed. Comprehensive programs provide a variety of services and aids that help learning disabled students with average or high intelligence enter and make it in college.

Before recommending a college to a learning disabled student, the reading teacher should be sure the college offers learning disabled students the following services:

Special Advisement

Learning disabled students need more than the standard advisement given to college freshmen. They tend to make poor choices about what courses to take and in what sequence to take them. It is important that advisors not only know the details of courses of study but also have some knowledge of what learning disabled students are like.

Counseling

Learning disabled students have as much difficulty meeting the

social demands of college as they do meeting the academic demands. They need the assistance of trained counselors to help them learn to establish good interpersonal relationships and to accept and respond constructively to the problems posed by their learning disabilities.

Remediation of Basic Skills

Learning disabled students often enter college with less than college level skills in reading and/or mathematics and/or written language. They continue to need the assistance of trained teachers to improve in these basic skill areas. Further, they need to be taught effective compensatory strategies that will minimize the impact of their learning disabilities upon their achievement in college courses.

Tutoring

Learning disabled students will need tutoring in order to understand and master the content of many college courses. With tutoring assistance, they are able to achieve to the level of their potential while minimizing the interfering effects of their learning disabilities.

Reading teachers should also be sure that colleges and programs they recommend provide learning disabled students with the following aids:

Tape Recorders

Learning disabled college students often need to use tape recorders to capture class notes. The tape recorder allows them to listen to lectures in an unhurried manner, enabling them to integrate and organize information. The students can replay the tapes as often as necessary to understand complex ideas.

Taped Textbooks

To compensate for their reading limitations, many learning disabled students need to be provided with taped textbooks. They should be assisted in obtaining taped textbooks from Recording For The Blind, Inc., 215 East 58 Street, New York, NY 10022, (212) 751-0860 or The National Library Service For The Blind and Physically Handicapped of The Library of Congress, 1291 Taylor Street N.W., Washington, DC 20542, (202) 287-5100.

Typewriters

Because of underdeveloped handwriting skills, learning disabled students often find written assignments a test of endurance rather than a test of their knowledge. Learning disabled students need to have typewriters available so they can compose papers without the debilitating fatigue associated with their writing difficulties.

Word Processors

To further assist learning disabled students with their writing activities, word processors should be made available. Students should be taught how to use word processors so they can store what they write and easily make revisions. A word-check program should be available to help learning disabled students produce papers free of spelling errors.

Calculators

In addition to reading and writing problems, many learning disabled students have difficulty with mathematics. They understand mathematics concepts but are not automatic in their computational skills. As a result, they make careless errors that lead to wrong answers despite their understanding of the concepts. These learning disabled students should be provided with calculators to help them do the required computations for solving problems.

Note-takers

Note-takers may be provided to learning disabled students as an alternative to using tape recorders for recording lectures. This is particularly important for students who have auditory memory difficulties and do best when they have written notes from which to study.

Alternative Test Arrangements

Many learning disabled students who understand course content have difficulty demonstrating their knowledge when required to take standard course tests. They are able to demonstrate their mastery of a course when given the option to take tests in alternative manners. Alternative test arrangements that have been found to be helpful include: taking tests with extended time limits, having test questions dictated onto an audio tape, having a proctor read the questions, dictating the answers into a tape recorder, typing rather than writing responses, or taking a different format of a test such as a multiple choice test in place of an essay test.

Advocacy

Learning disabled students find many aspects of college to be overwhelming. They need someone who will be there when they need help, to encourage them to become independent, and to represent their interests with the entire college community.

As indicated earlier, an increasing number of colleges are providing assistance to learning disabled students. While some colleges merely provide the standard forms of assistance that are customarily provided to all students, others are providing comprehensive assistance specifically designed for learning disabled students. These comprehen-

sive programs provide many of the services and aids described in this article.

At the conclusion of this article is a list of seven colleges with comprehensive programs for helping learning disabled students (Figure 1). These programs were recently visited by the authors. The reading teacher can feel confident in recommending these programs because they provide the full range of services and aids needed by learning disabled students. Furthermore, these programs have been in existence for a number of years and have demonstrated their effectiveness in helping learning disabled students make it through college. The name of the program providing services to the learning disabled students precedes each entry.

It is important to realize that this is not a complete list of comprehensive programs for college-bound learning disabled students. The authors are presently surveying all four-year colleges and universities throughout the United States to identify those that provide comprehensive services and aids for learning disabled students. This information will be published by Peterson's Guides in the Spring of 1985. Other publishers are undertaking similar efforts. The reading teacher who is interested in more information on college services for learning disabled students is referred to our recent book on this subject (Mangrum and Strichart, 1984).

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Dr. Charles T. Mangrum II is a professor of reading and learning disabilities at the University of Miami in Coral Gables, Florida.

Dr. Stephen S. Strichart is a professor of learning disabilities and coordinator of the special education program at Florida International University in Miami.

Figure 1

Colleges with Comprehensive Programs For Learning Disabled Students

Curtis Blake Center
American International College
1000 State Street
Springfield, MA 01109
(413) 737-7000

Learning Opportunities Program
Barat College
700 E. Westleigh Road
Lake Forest, IL 60045
(312) 234-3000

Program of Assistance in Learning
Curry College
Milton, MA 02186
(617) 333-0500

Ben D. Caudle Special Learning Center
College of the Ozarks
Clarksville, AR
(501) 754-3034

Specific Learning Disability Program
Erskine College
Due West, SC 29639
(803) 379-8867

Project Achieve
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, IL 62901
(618) 453-2595

Project Success
University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh
Oshkosh, WI 54901
(414) 424-1032

CALL FOR MANUSCRIPTS

The Wisconsin State Reading Association Journal is seeking articles that are aimed at improving the quality of reading instruction. Each issue is developed around a predetermined theme; however, articles not related to the theme but deserving publication are encouraged. Each theme is selected to be wide enough in scope to allow for many approaches and kinds of articles. The WSRA Journal especially encourages the submission of descriptions of research, poetry, practical papers, etc.

Remaining themes and deadlines for 1985-1986 are:

Volume 30, Number 3	**Theme: Effecting Change in Reading Programs** **Deadline: As soon as possible**
Volume 30, Number 4	**Theme: Literature and Reading** **Deadline: May 1, 1986**

Themes and deadlines for 1986-1987 are:

Volume 31, Number 1	**Theme: The Strategic Reader** **Deadline: July 1, 1986**
Volume 31, Number 2	**Theme: Helping Students Remember: Effective Approaches to Comprehensive Instruction** **Deadline: October 1, 1986**
Volume 31, Number 3	**Theme: Reading and Writing Across the Curriculum** **Deadline: February 1, 1987**
Volume 31, Number 4	**Theme: Reading for All Ages: Perspectives on Emergent Reading and Adult Literacy** **Deadline: May 1, 1987**

Refer to page 66 for publication policy and guidelines.

College level reading and study skills: A personal perspective

Nancy S. Walker
Northland College
Ashland, Wisconsin

The teaching of developmental reading and study skills at the college level is a challenge. Many students do not feel that they need these skills. Others feel that they've already learned them, though their grades may indicate otherwise. Many freshmen are busy exploring formerly forbidden pleasures which are definitely more exciting than a class dealing with reading and study skills. Others feel ashamed that they are still trying to master what they believe they should have learned in grade school.

Fortunately, I've found a way to make the teaching and learning of reading and study skills at the college level interesting, meaningful, and successful. Because I am blessed with a situation that is very helpful in overcoming some of these problems, one of the most valuable approaches for me has been to teach reading and study skills in conjunction with assignments from my students' other classes.

The instructor of the Native American history class came to me for help because many of his students were older women who had left school at a young age and had returned late to get their GED. Now they were attending college. These students, who had never written a research paper, had to write one for this class. I was invited to speak to the class and was given enough class time to introduce the basic steps of research and invite students to come to my office for further help.

The response was overwhelming. Many of the students from this class came for help. One fifty-eight year old Native American woman wanted to write about the harvesting of wild rice. She wanted to trace the history of gathering wild rice. She also wanted to compare the methods and tools used today with those that were used in the past. After making a preliminary outline, we scoured our small college library for any information we could find. We used the card catalog, the periodical guide, and the Native American reference books. We even looked in cookbooks.

Next, I called the town librarian and asked if he had any information. He said that he was certain that there was some information in the back issues of the local newspaper, but that they were stored in a very unorganized way in a small upstairs room at the back of the library.

This student, who had never written a research paper in her life, spent hours in that little room. By the light of a single light bulb, she sorted through years of issues of the *Ashland Daily Press*. Finally, covered with printer's ink, she found her prize, an article on the history of her tribe's harvesting wild rice.

Next, she needed to learn how to pick out the main ideas and put them on note cards. She also had to learn how to record the information needed for her bibliography on bibliographical cards.

She still did not have enough information so I suggested that she think of a local "expert" from her tribe who could be interviewed. She was surprised that she could use what a person told her verbally for research. Because she didn't know how to conduct an interview, we worked on questioning and note-taking techniques.

When she had finally gathered all of her information, she arranged her note cards in piles and began to write and rewrite. Her level of motivation was high, and she worked on that paper for weeks. She went to each of four writing tutors in the Learning Center several times and made appointments with each of the writing specialists as well. She had other students from her class proofread. She had the Learning Center counselor read and critique her paper, and she had me read and evaluate each change that she made after talking to each of these people.

When she came to the Learning Center with her graded paper, she was beaming from ear to ear. At fifty-eight, she had earned an A on the first research paper she had ever written.

Another of her classmates, a pregnant mother of three preschoolers, wanted to write a paper which compared the Chippewa's folk hero Winabooshoo with the Iroquois' Hiawatha. Writing a research paper was a new experience for her, but she successfully completed her paper just one month before she delivered a beautiful baby boy and had to withdraw from school for a while.

Another woman wrote a paper that compared the ancient religion of the Chippewas with Christianity. I was a bit worried that her reading and study skills would not be up to coping with this topic, but she persevered until she had her paper written. I had to do some heavy reading too because she asked difficult questions, and the campus minister was out of town.

One of the men in the class decided to write about the oppression of

the American Indians by the non-Indian settlers who moved to this continent. I was a bit uneasy about this topic because I am of European descent. As we moved through the research process, we had many discussions about the treatment of the Indians. I learned a great deal about history, and he learned a great deal about writing research papers.

Later, this man came to me and asked for help in writing a business letter to his tribal chairman about an important matter coming up before the tribal council. I felt very honored.

Many of these students were also in my developmental reading class, and I tried to teach my class so it addressed the needs of these students as they struggled with this and other assignments. We worked on finding main ideas, taking notes, and using context clues and structural analysis to figure out new words when we were onto a "hot lead" and did not want to stop and run to a dictionary. We worked on organizational patterns of written materials also.

The word was soon out that I had the approach to successfully completing research papers, and students were coming from sociology, political science, English, history, and biology classes. I've guided students through research papers on such diverse topics as: "The Habits of Chickadees in Prentice Park," "A Comparison of Charles Dickens and Ebenezer Scrooge," "Population Problems of Australia," and "A Semester of Observations of a Tamarack Tree."

Because the students were to highly motivated, I became very highly motivated also. Eventually, some of my younger students - the traditional freshmen - began to wander into the Learning Center with research papers. I discussed my ideas with them, and then I referred them to a writing tutor for another opinion. Most of the time, they followed through and met the writing tutor.

I also took two history classes the first semester and two Native American classes the second semester to model my note-taking and test-taking techniques. When students saw that my approaches were successful, they came for help. One student looked at my notes during a study session and asked why I folded the pages at the left hand side to leave a space. I explained the Cornell note-taking system briefly and the next thing I knew, he was using it!

Then I deliberately took a class where I would have some difficulty (but not enough that I might fail). It was a class where my students would certainly experience some degree of success: Native American arts and crafts. My students were now fellow classmates who had the "edge" on me because many of them had been doing beadwork for several years. They were so patient and kind as they helped me struggle with those beads. First, we read about jewelry patterns in our direction books, and we drew the designs on graph paper. Up to this

point, I was doing fine. Then, we had to work with the actual beads. They showed me how to hold my thread like they did. They began to realize that instructors are human beings with strengths and weaknesses similar to theirs. They began to realize that they had something to offer me, just as I had something to offer them.

This method of presenting reading and study skills has a major advantage over the more traditional textbook approach. In this method of presentation, the skills are integrated and used in a meaningful way that relates to the student's background.

An evaluation of the success of this approach is very difficult to present statistically. However, of approximately forty students who completed my classes first semester and came for additional reading, study, and research sessions, all but one showed improvement on the Nelson-Denny Reading Test. The one student who did not improve had personal problems and stayed at the same reading level. The majority of the students who showed improvement showed significant gains.

Even though a change in a non-quantifiable area such as reading and study skills is difficult to measure accurately, most students who took my classes indicated on the faculty evaluation sheets that they felt the class, tutoring sessions, and study sessions had helped them to become better students. The content area teachers reported that the students who came for help all received A or B grades on their research papers.

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Burlington Area School District
Burlington, Wisconsin

Muppet Learning Keys, Sunburst Communications, Inc., Pleasantville, NY, 1984. For Apple IIe, IIc: 64K, Commodore 64, and IBM PCjr: 128K systems. US$69.95.

Getting Ready to Read and Add, Sunburst Communications, Inc., Pleasantville, NY, 1984. For Apple II+, IIe, IIc: 48K, Atari 400, 800, XL Series: 16K, Commodore 64, and IBM PC: 64K, IBM PCjr: 128K systems. US$59.00.

Teddy's Playground, Sunburst Communications, Inc., Pleasantville, NY, 1984. For Apple II+, IIe, IIc: 48K systems. US$59.00.

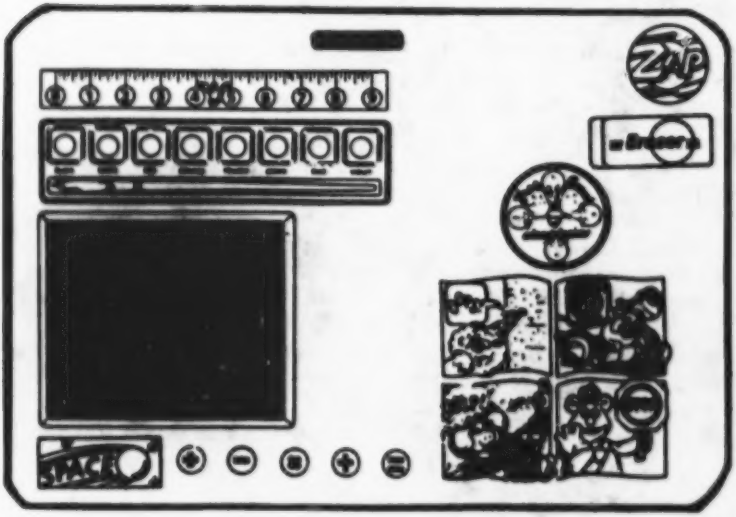
When the micro-computer first began appearing in elementary school classrooms, many lower primary teachers were concerned as to whether the computer's keyboard would be too much of an obstacle for young children to use. After all, such keys as "control" or "escape" have proven to be puzzling to many adults. Although many young children have shown how adaptive and accepting they can be with this technology, many concerned educators hoped that something less foreign to a child's experience would be developed.

Enter *Muppet Learning Keys,* a keyboard that has been designed with the child in mind. The keyboard, made of a rugged plastic, has a surface (Figure 1) that resembles a child's desk. On one side of this "desk" is the alphabet in upper case letters. Above the alphabet is a paint tray and a ruler. The letters, colors, and numbers are actually keys on the keyboard. On other areas of the "desk" are special function keys. "GO," "STOP," "HELP," "OOPS," and "SPACE" keys are creatively displayed so that a child can easily learn how the keys function. Arrow keys are logically displayed on a compass. Special keys for common punctuation marks and math symbols are provided. An "Eraser" key will clear the screen, and a "ZAP" key will end a program and return to the main menu.

Muppet Learning Keys comes with a "Discovery Disk" that contains three activities. Each activity is displayed on the monitor as a

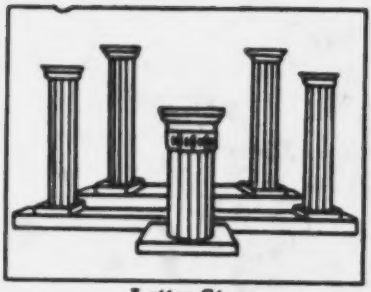
theatre stage. The Letter Stage (Figure 2) contains a letter identification activity. Characters from the Muppet Learning Key Alphabet (Figure 3) are displayed on the center column on the stage. If the child presses the correct letter key, the character will perform a few seconds of movement on the stage while some sound effects are played. The alligator (A), for example, will dance to a little tune. An incorrect choice results in a little beeping noise and no movement on the stage. The child can keep trying as many times as necessary to find the correct letter.

Figure 1: The Muppet Keyboard

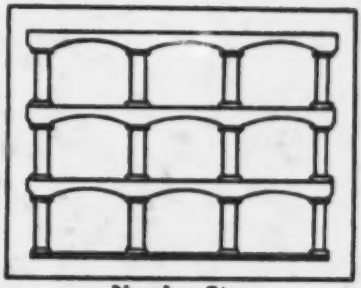


The Number Stage (Figure 2) activity works on number recognition. Up to nine characters from the Muppet Learning Key alphabet appear under the archways. If the child selects the number "5" key when five yo-yos appear on the stage, the yo-yos will move up and down for a few seconds. Incorrect choices are handled the same as before.

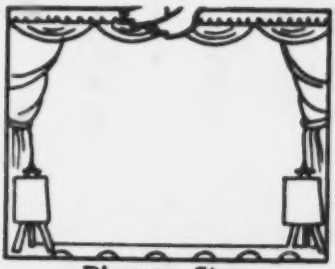
Figure 2: The Three Stages



Letter Stage



Number Stage

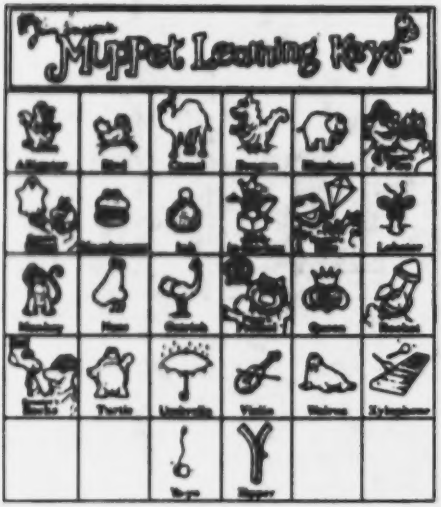


Discovery Stage

The Discovery Stage (Figure 2) allows the child to make unlimited combinations of numbers, letters, characters, and colors appear on the stage. For example, if the child presses the "G" key, a white ghost will appear on the stage. When the "8" key is pressed, seven more ghosts appear. If the "GO" key is pressed, the ghosts begin moving. If the "RED" key on the paint box is pressed, the white ghosts turn red. If the "STOP" key is pressed, the red ghosts will stop moving. When the "R" key is pressed, the eight red ghosts turn into eight red rockets. If the child presses the "Eraser" key, the entire stage clears and the child can start all over creatively constructing characters in various colors and numbers.

The menu for the Discovery Disk consists of a screen showing the three stages. An arrow moves under each stage from left to right. If the child presses the "GO" key when the arrow is under a stage, the program for that stage is loaded. At any time during the activity, the child can get back to the main menu by pressing the "ZAP" key. Pressing the "HELP" key causes a screen graphic of Kermit the Frog to appear. He demonstrates how the activity is used.

Figure 3: The Muppet Alphabet



Several outstanding features of the activity disk are the color graphics, sound effects, and animation. The artwork and color in each of the activities is exceptional. If the program is used in a classroom during a busy activity period when children are engaged in a variety of activities, the sound effects will not be overly distracting. Unfortunately, there is no option to disengage the sound completely. The animation is appropriate though unvaried in form. Each character from the alphabet is designed to do a specific animated response. This response is the same in each of the three stages. A little variety in animation during each stage would have made the responses more appealing and less predictable.

Documentation is provided in a short twenty page booklet that is entertaining as well as informative. The booklet does not provide any suggestions for incorporating *Muppet Learning Keys* into the classroom. One excellent educational feature is the control option for the letter and number stages. In the Letter Stage, the teacher can predetermine letter identification in either upper or lower case formats and in either sequential or random order. Letters that may be unfamiliar to a youngster can be removed from the activity. These options permit the difficulty level and the area of curriculum emphasis to be controlled. As a result, the Letter Stage can be used at any time of the school year and the level and scope of presentation can be matched to classroom instruction or the ability levels of individual children.

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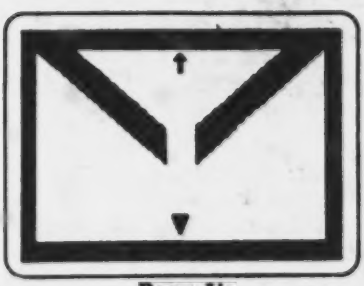
Similar options are available to control the presentation of numbers in the Number Stage.

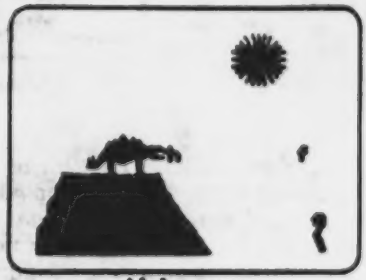
Since *Muppet Learning Keys* was first introduced, Sunburst Communications has developed a series of educational programs designed for pre-school, kindergarten, and primary grade levels which use this keyboard. Two of these are *Getting Ready to Read and Add* and *Teddy's Playground.*

Getting Ready to Read and Add is a series of six activities which provides practice in shape, letter, and numeral recognition. Beam Up (Figure 4) is a shape recognition activity in which up to nineteen shapes can be matched. Alphasaurus (Figure 4) is a lower-case letter recognition activity and ABC-> (Figure 4) is an upper-case letter recognition activity. Letter Getter (Figure 5) and Moon Math (Figure 5) both use a moonscape background to provide an upper/lower-case letter matching and a numeral matching activity respectively. Number Chick (Figure 5) is a combination number matching/number counting activity. In all of these activities, the child responds to the matched pairs by pressing the letter, number, or "Go" key when a match occurs. Correct matches result in a little audio-visual reward; incorrect responses result in a little beeping noise and no movement.

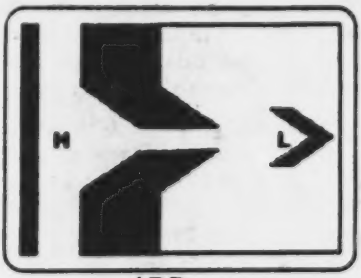
Figure 4: Activities in *Getting Ready to Read and Add*



Beam Up

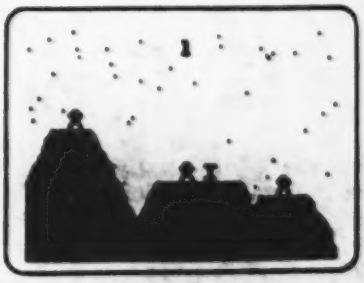


Alphasaurus



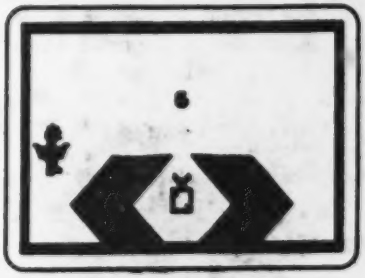
ABC->

Figure 5: Activities in *Getting Ready to Read and Add*



Letter Getter

Moon Math



Number Chick

As an educational tool, the best feature of *Getting Ready to Read and Add* is the change option which allows the specific content and method of presentation to be preset by the teacher. Response time can be varied from one to nine seconds in each activity. In the shape and letter matching activities, the number of items to be matched can be set. In the letter matching activities, the specific letters to be used can be predetermined. In the number matching activities, the teacher can choose either a sequential or random order presentation. Like the change option on the Muppet disk, these software activities can be modified to fit the curriculum or the readiness level of the child.

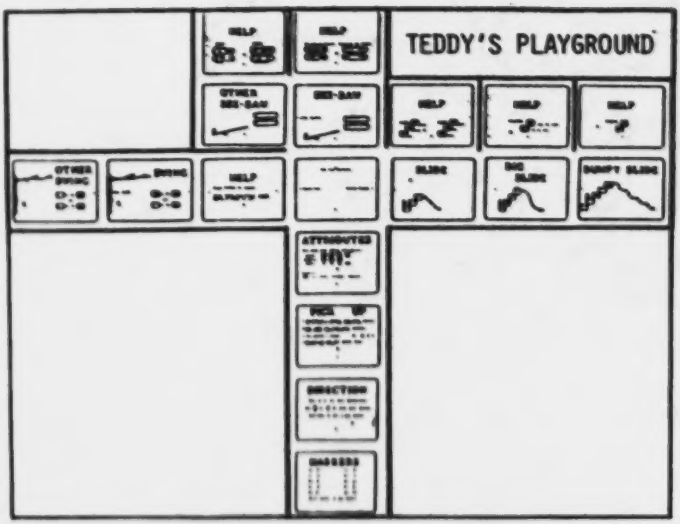
The artwork and screen graphics for these activities are less sophisticated than those found on the Muppet disk. However, the educational design using a matching format is very appropriate for young children. Documentation for *Getting Ready to Read and Add* is complete. Each activity is fully explained, and suggestions for using the software both at home and in the classroom are offered.

Teddy's Playground has a curriculum design and emphasis that is unique among educational software programs. The program is based on an extensive problem-solving matrix. The three activities in the playground deal with a small part of this matrix and emphasize the discrimination of concrete concepts (objects) on the basis of three attributes: shape, color, and shading.

The program begins with a color adjustment screen. Because one of the attributes used is color, a color monitor is needed for this program. During this part of the program, a change option menu can be accessed using the (CTRL) key and "T." Sound effects can be turned on or off, and the input device can be selected. Besides using *Muppet Learning Keys* and the computer keyboard, *Teddy's Playground* can use a joystick or an Apple Mouse.

Each of the other screens has arrows at some of its edges. Using the arrow keys to move a preselected marker in the direction of one of these edges results in the program's displaying another screen. The entire layout of these screens (Figure 6) shows how the child can move from one screen to the next as the activities of *Teddy's Playground* are explored.

Figure 6: A Map of *Teddy's Playground*

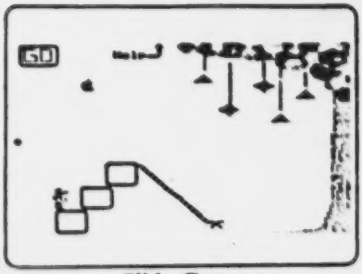


There are three activities in *Teddy's Playground:* the Slide Game, See-Saw Sorting, and the Swing Game. The Slide Game (Figure 7)

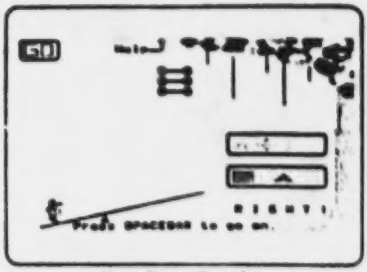
contains four levels of difficulty. Each level must be completed before the child can move to the next level. The object of the game is to move objects suspended from a tree to the steps of a slide. The objects must be arranged so that only one attribute changes from one object to the next. After arranging the objects successfully three times, the child is rewarded with a screen graphic of Teddy going down the slide accompanied by a little melody. Arranging the objects three more times at a slightly more difficult level results in an audio-visual reward and the opportunity to move to the Big Slide, which has three more complicated sequences to complete. Success at this level also results in an audio-visual reward and a chance to play on the Bumpy Slide. If a child has trouble arranging objects on any of the slides, he/she can move to a help screen for a quick review of the game's operation. After two unsuccessful attempts at arranging the sequence in any of these slides, the correct sequence is displayed and the child gets another chance to play.

The format of moving from one level of difficulty to another in an activity is repeated in the other two games in *Teddy's Playground*. See-Saw Sorting (Figure 7) is an activity in which children sort objects according to a single attribute (shape, color, shading). The Swing Game (Figure 7) works with the objects and their attributes to form analogies.

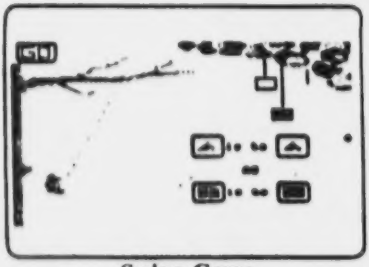
Figure 7: Activities in *Teddy's Playground*



Slide Game



See-Saw Sorting



Swing Game

As in the previous activity, the child has two tries before the correct answer is given. After three successful completions, a more challenging level is presented in each game.

Evidently, the authors of *Teddy's Playground* recognize the difficulty of fitting problem-solving software into the lower primary grades since instruction in this area of cognitive development is usually missing from the curriculum. To make up for this deficiency, the documentation comes complete with classroom lesson plans that provide instruction on the concept of attributes and problem-solving strategies. These lessons enable children to apply this information in the three activities.

Unlike the *Muppet Discovery Disk* and *Getting Ready to Read and Add* which were developed as drill and practice activities, *Teddy's Playground* goes beyond simple stimulus-response learning to a process of heuristic learning in which the solution to problems at one level provides the experience and insight necessary to solve problems at a higher level. By using an instructional design which requires the active participation of the child to reason, to test solutions, and to learn from the results, *Teddy's Playground* shows the educational potential software can provide.

Alan L. Jante is the chairperson of the Wisconsin State Reading Association's Reading and Technology committee. He is the K-12 Reading Coordinator for the Burlington Area School District.

Editor's Note:

If you know of something noteworthy being done with the microcomputer and the reading/language arts program in a classroom, school, or district, and you would like to share this unique application with your colleagues in the WSRA, send a fifty word abstract to: Alan Jante, Burlington Area School District, 100 N. Kane St., Burlington, Wisconsin 53105. These abstracts will appear in the summer issue of the WSRA Journal. Deadline for submissions is April 15, 1986.

What is writing as a process?

Jim Paprocki
Ashwaubenon School System
Green Bay, Wisconsin

WRITING AS A PROCESS
is a natural flow
of inside ideas
that outwardly glow.
Because
writing is a process
with a purpose to show
a particular audience
what for you is "just so."

PREWRITING is
THINKING
or clustering about
a topic (for awhile)
until it will shout
and show you the way
like a map to a treasure
it's a route,
a guide,
a fantasy measure.

FIRST WRITING is a
dabble,
a scratch, or a scribble.
REALLY! Just that -
an idea's first dribble.
Nothing Fancy!
Nothing high hat!
As Recurrences -
or a backward glance -
FIRST WRITING'S an
extension
of the prewriting trance.

SECOND WRITING is
revision
of ideas you thought were
so clear.
After rereading and
redesigning,
It follows your editing
with teacher or peer.
A deletion -
an addition -
Second writing's RE-VISION
is an analytical,
evaluative,
creative position.

PUBLISHING IS
the polished product
of the final read,
the sharing of
a human need,
a magical moment,
a mystical bit
of fortune for all
who are literate.

How to find good computer software in English and language arts

ERIC Clearinghouse
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

One of the great sports in the field of educational computing is called "find the good software," particularly in the field of English, reading, and the other language arts. Many English teachers, spurning the current unsatisfactory software developed for computer-assisted instruction, have turned away from CAI and toward the use of the computer as a tool for teaching word processing in composition instruction and for computer database searching in units on library skills.

The ease of developing lower level computer software and the difficulty of programming some areas of the language arts curriculum are largely responsible for the less-than-ideal quality of software currently available. Because many aspects of language arts involve mental and verbal processes not adapted easily to computer-delivered instruction, software developers have been producing programs that, for the most part, are drill and practice lessons on aspects that are more easily defined: parts of speech, spelling, vocabulary, punctuation, and syntax.

In a sense, the problem of finding good software is further complicated by the fact that some good CAI materials have appeared on the market - for example, tutorials that deal with the cloze procedure in teaching reading, sentence combining, and general comprehension. Educators now need the ability to evaluate software knowledgeably and the resources that provide thorough, up-to-date software reviews. For a brief discussion of evaluating language arts software, see the ERIC digest, "Software Evaluation for the Teacher of English Language Arts." This particular digest identifies for prospective purchasers various sources that offer reviews of language arts software.

Reviews in Subscription Publications

The most readily available resource for software reviews is subscription publications. English and language arts educators now have a content-specific journal that reports software applications and evalua-

tions in their discipline. *Computers, Reading and Language Arts* is a quarterly journal that features extensive reviews written by computer-using educational specialists. Each CRLA courseware evaluation follows a prescribed format that includes the program sequence, the program's educational intent and content, a discussion of the instructional technique(s) used by the program, and a description of any support literature or documentation provided by the publishers.

In addition to CRLA, English and language arts specialists have another content-specific resource in *The Computing Teacher* which, since it began publishing, has featured a monthly column, "Computers in the Teaching of English," edited by Robert Shostak and Lester Golub. English teachers are invited to submit reports on their use of computers in the classroom and to describe applications of particular software packages.

English and language arts specialists have found the monthly software reviews in other educational computing journals such as *Electronic Learning, Electronic Education,* and *Teaching and Computers* to be a helpful resource. In addition to reviews of software designed for their discipline, they look at materials developed for other areas such as social studies, business communication, or word problem solving in mathematics. These programs often can be used to advantage as discussion starters for prewriting sessions or as exercises in logical thinking or persuasive argument in a language arts setting. *Electronic Education* has presented an "Annual Buyer's Guide" for the last three years, an annotated list of programs grouped according to content area designed to assist educators with end-of-year purchasing decisions. The May/June 1984 issue of *Teaching and Computers* offered a pull-out supplement that briefly described more than seventy programs recommended by teachers. The latter journal, published by Scholastic, Inc. for elementary-level educators, also carries a regular feature called "Software Showcase: Software Recommended for Teachers by Teachers," that provides one- or two-paragraph evaluations. In addition, each issue offers a detailed discussion of a "Program of the Month," complete with a listing of the programming code. These noncommerical programs have been designed by teachers who make them available to others interested in computer-assisted instruction. Even such general computing journals as *Personal Software: The Monthly Review of the Best Packages* offer extensive reviews of a selection of educational software packages in each issue.

While not educational computing journals per se, three other subscriptions offer extensive reviews of educational software, and would serve well those teachers looking for good language arts software. The first is *EPIE and Consumers Union Microcomputer Courseware PRO/FILES,* a set of 8½"x11" file cards and file box, complete with subject matter dividers. Software in subject matter

areas that could be effective in the English/language arts classroom include The Arts, Business Education, Computer Literacy, Language Arts, Logic/Problem Solving, Reading, and Social Studies. These headings are indicated in bold print at the top of each evaluation card, making them easy to file and find. Each monthly update of cards offers subscribers a summary and in-depth evaluation of thirty individual software packages distributed across the curriculum. The discussion of each package has four major strands: goals and objectives, contents, methods and approach, and evaluation and management. Next is *Courseware Report Card,* a publication available in both elementary and secondary editions that presents two- to four-page summary/evaluations of twenty-five to thirty packages per issue. Users of Apple, Atari, Commodore, and Radio Shack microcomputers can subscribe to separate editions.

Finally, for those who have neither the time nor the money to subscribe to several educational computer journals, *The Digest of Software Reviews: Education* provides abstracts and indexes of reviews from over sixty publications in the U.S. and Canada. A software program must have had a minimum of two published reviews to be selected for inclusion in *The Digest.*

Keep in mind that reviews of specific microcomputer brand-compatible programs are also published in journals by various hardware manufacturers. Apple computer's *Journal of Courseware Review* is an example.

Help from Professional Associations

While neither of the two major support organizations for teachers of English, reading, and the other language arts - the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and the International Reading Association (IRA) - regularly publishes software reviews, they are involved and interested in microcomputer usage in their content area classrooms. NCTE's Committee on Instructional Technology has published guidelines for evaluating language arts software; IRA's Committee on Technology and Reading has produced *Guidelines for Educators* designed to help reading teachers make the best possible use of the new technologies. Both associations publish journals that carry articles recommending various software programs. For example, the IRA journal, *The Reading Teacher,* carries a monthly column called "Printout" with CAI suggestions for elementary reading teachers. Apart from NCTE and IRA, the National Education Association supports an Educational Computer Service that publishes a catalog of "NEA Teacher Certified" software. The software has been evaluated and approved by trained programmers and teachers using specific guidelines.

Consortia Services

At both national and state levels, computer-oriented educational consortia have been organized to offer educators such services as teacher inservice workshops, "help" hotlines for technical assistance, hardware acquisition, and software reviews and recommendations.

State and local consortia often provide, as one of their services, a library of software packages for teachers to preview. The January and February 1984 issues of *Electronic Learning* include a directory listing the location, size of inventory, and contact person for each state's noncommerical preview centers, many of which have been developed by state-supported regional consortia, as well as university labs, individual school districts, and educational associations. At the national level, the Educational Software Evaluation Consortium, representing twenty-seven organizations involved in computer education throughout North America, has developed a list of favorably reviewed instructional software for K-12 classrooms.

Online Sources

Using a microcomputer and a modem, educators can locate titles of recommended software by searching commerical information databases. The *microSIFT Reviews*, prepared by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratories Computer Technology Program, are available in the Resources in Computer Education (RICE) database and in the ERIC database. The reviews are also available in print editions through regional and local educational service agencies. The format of a microSIFT review is a page of comments in the areas of instructional objectives, instructional prerequisites, content and structure, potential uses, major strengths and weaknesses, and a twenty-one-item checklist from the microSIFT software evaluation form.

Both the RICE and the ERIC files are provided by Bibliographic Retrieval Services (BRS) and are available to those who have a service contract with BRS in Latham, New York. The ERIC file is also available through the DIALOG Information Retrieval Service, as is the Microcomputer Index file. The Microcomputer Index is a subject and abstract guide to magazine articles from over forty microcomputer journals, and includes software reviews published in those journals. As with BRS, DIALOG users are assigned a password in their search contract and are billed only for the time they use the database.

Published Catalogs

Facing the plethora of catalogs produced by software and hardware companies can be overwhelming. In addition to the catalogs published by manufacturers, individual distributors list software they claim is

"teacher-tested." Companies such as Scholastic, Hammett, and the Society for Visual Education (SVE) produce catalogs listing what they describe as educator-evaluated and approved software. Most of these distributors are willing to offer a free examination and return policy.

When searching for potential program titles for English and language arts from any catalog, educators should not hesitate to examine software descriptions in content areas other than English language arts. Shirley Keran, language arts software designer for the Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium (MECC), suggests that many programs exist for other disciplines that can augment the work of the language arts teacher. If an English teacher believes that world events can be the topic for an essay, then software developed for social studies could be applicable. "The epicenters of earthquakes and the waterways of voyageurs can be simulated, studied, and researched" says Keran. "Many simulations could be used in social studies for one set of activities and in language arts for another."

Informal Sources

A final suggestion for educators interested in locating English and language arts software is to identify and befriend an independent distributor of software. A growing number of computer-using teachers are becoming distributors for companies whose products they have used successfully with their students. Many of these enthusiastic entrepreneurs attend trade shows, preview the latest software releases, and in general keep current with both software and hardware developments. As a rule, they are willing to consult with educational administrators interested in introducing CAI to their staffs, to offer inservices on software applications in the various content areas, and to make new software releases available for review.

All of the sources described in this digest are suggested only to assist educators in locating software for preview; because the criteria used for evaluation differ from one source to another, no qualitative review, no matter how positive it sounds, should be taken as an endorsement to purchase and use a piece of software without a preview by those who will be its ultimate users.

Anne Auten, ERIC/RCS

Sources for Software Reviews

Subscription Publications

Computers, Reading and Language Arts, Modern Learning Publishers, Inc., 1308 East 38th Street, Oakland, CA 94602. $14/year.

Courseware Report Card, Educational Insights, 150 West Carob Street, Compton, CA 90220, $59.50/year.

Digest of Software Reviews: Education, 1341 Bulldog Lane, Suite C, Fresno, CA 93710, $52.95/year.

Electronic Education, Elecronic Communications, Inc., Suite 220, 1311 Executive Center Drive, Tallahassee, FL 32301, $18/year.

Electronic Learning, Scholastic Inc, 730 Broadway, New York, NY 10003-9538, $19/year.

Journal of Courseware Review, Apple Computer, 20525 Mariana Avenue, Cupertino, CA 95014, $5.95/issue.

Micro-Courseware PRO/FILES, EPIE and Consumers Union, P.O. Box 839, Watermill, NY 11976, $125/year, including a one-year subscription to *The Computing Teacher*.

Personal Software, P.O. Box 2919, Boulder, CO 80322, $24/year.

Teaching and Computers, Scholastic Inc., 730 Broadway, New York, NY 10003-9538, $19/year.

The Computing Teacher, The International Council for Computers in Education (ICCE), University of Oregon, 1787 Agate Street, Eugene, OR 97403-1923, $21.50/year.

Online Sources

Bibliographic Retrieval Services, Inc., 1200 Route 7, Latham, NY 12110.

DIALOG Information Services, Inc., 3460 Hillview Avenue, Palo Alto, CA 94304.

microSIFT Reviews, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 300 S.W. Sixth Avenue, Portland, OR 97204.

Specific Guides

"A + Software Supplement," *Teaching and Computers*, 1 (May-June 1984): 29-44.

International Reading Association Committee on Technology and Reading. "Guidelines for Educators." Newark, DEL.: IRA, 1984.

National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Instructional Technology. "Guidelines for Review and Evaluation of English Language Arts Software." Urbana, IL: NCTE, 1983.

National Education Association Educational Computer Service. *The Yellow Book of Computer Products for Education*. Bethesda, MD: NEA, 1984.

"Third Annual Buyer's Guide," *Electronic Educaton*, 3 (March 1984): 25-48.

OCTOBER FEST · 87

Seventh Great Lakes Regional Conference of the International Reading Association

OCTOBER 1-3, 1987

Indianapolis, Indiana

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The **Wisconsin State Reading Association Journal** seeks articles that are aimed at improving the quality of reading instruction. Each issue is developed around a pre-determined theme; however, articles not related to the theme but deserving publication are encouraged. Themes for Volume 30 are as follows:

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Volume 30, Number 2	Theme: **Integrating Reading and Language Arts**
Volume 30, Number 3	Theme: **Effecting Change in Reading Programs**
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1. write material which would be of interest to our readers -- reading specialists, classroom teachers, and other educators interested in reading.
2. submit manuscripts which have not been previously published for anonymous peer review on or before the stated deadline.
3. construct material that has a clearly identifiable focus or main idea.
4. submit articles (3 copies) that are typed double-spaced and provide a stamped self-addressed envelope for the return of the original copy. Original copies accepted for publication are not returned to the author.
5. give complete bibliographical information for each source quoted or paraphrased. APA style should be used for all citations and references.

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